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ABSTRACT

Recognizing the salience of the family in middle and later life, researchers have recently shown increased interest in grandparenting. Population trends which suggest that grandparenting is an experience relevant to many individuals and families for longer periods of time than ever before emphasize the need to examine grandparenting as an experience that changes over time. The consideration of age differences in perceptions of grandparenting is an initial step toward that goal. Age and sex differences in perceived grandparenting responsibilities were examined in 277 grandparents in three age groups (45-60 years, 61-69 years, and 70-90 years) who completed measures of perceptions of grandparenting experience. An age group by gender multiple analysis of variance indicated that younger grandparents expressed greater responsibility for disciplining, caretaking, and offering childrearing advice. Compared to grandmothers, grandfathers expressed greater responsibilites for caretaking and offering childrearing advice. When number of grandchildren and grandchildren's ages were statistically controlled, younger grandparents and grandfathers expressed greater responsibility for offering childrearing advice; grandfathers also expressed greater responsibility for caretaking. These findings may be interpreted with respect to possible developmental changes in grandparenting and cohort differences in perceptions of grandparenthood. (NRB)

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AGE AND GENDER DIFFERENCES

IN

PERCEIVED GRANDPARENTING RESPONSIBILITIES

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Abstract

This study considered age and gender differences in perceived grandparenting responsibilities. Two hundred seventy-seven grandparents in three age groups (45-60, 61-69, 70-90) completed measures of perceptions of grandparenting experience. An age group by gender MANOVA indicated that younger grandparents expressed greater responsibility for disciplining, caretaking, and offering childrearing advice. Grandfathers also expressed greater responsibilities for caretaking and offering childrearing advice. When number of grandchildren and grandchildren's ages were statistically controlled, younger grandparents and grandfathers expressed greater responsibility for offering childrearing advice; grandfathers also expressed greater responsibility for caretaking. Findings are discussed with respect to possible developmental changes in grandparenting and cohort differences in perceptions of grandparenthood.

Key Words: Human, Grandparents, Grandmothers, Grandfathers, Intergenerational Relations, Perceived Responsibility

Age and Gender Differences

in

Perceived Grandparenting Responsibilities

It is a common observation that the family provides social integration and practical and affective support throughout the life cycle. Recognizing the salience of the family in middle and later life, researchers have recently shown increased interest in grandparenting. Early research (Albrecht, 1954) identified absence of parental responsibility as one of the most enjoyable features of grandparenthood, but there have not been recent studies of grandparents' family responsibilities. With emerging family forms such as dual career families and single parent families, contemporary grandparents may expect more extensive responsibilities in grandchildren's upbringing than did grandparents of the 1950's. Furthermore, individual differences in grandparenting have not yet been described in detail. This article describes relationships between grandparents' age and gender and perceived responsibilities.

The twentieth century has witnessed trends toward marriage and childbearing occurring relatively early in adulthood. Consequently, most individuals now become grandparents during middle age. Together with this trend, increased life expectancy has resulted in grandparenthood now occupying a longer period of adulthood than was the case for earlier cohorts. Increases in life expectancy have also resulted in more families today including living grandparents than during earlier historical periods.

For these reasons, demographic trends point to the importance of thorough understanding of grandparenting as an experience relevant to more individuals

and families, for longer periods of time, than has ever before been true. Contemporary scholars thus stress the need to describe grandparenting as an experience characterized by change over time (Kivnick, 1982). The consideration of age differences in perceptions of grandparenting is an initial step toward that goal.

Relationships between age and reactions to grandparenting have been discussed in the context of major developmental theories. A psychodynamic view is that grandparenting is an opportunity to relive parenting, and is most satisfying to individuals no longer capable of bearing children (Benedek, 1970). Neo-Freudian theories offer different implications. Recently, Helen Kivnick (1982; in press), in collaboration with the Eriksons, has discussed ways in which grandparent-grandchild relationships provide opportunities to confront psychosocial crises throughout the life cycle. According to Kivnick, relationships with one's own grandparents, with one's parents as grandparents, and with grandchildren are contexts in which these crises are preworked, resolved, and reworked.

From a different psychodynamic perspective, David Gutmann (1975) proposes a mid-life shift in forms of mastery. According to Gutmann, men experience increased nurturance and expressivity as they grow older, while women become more assertive and instrumental with aging. Gutmann's theory implies that the individual will experience changes in family relationships, including relationships with grandchildren. Furthermore, Gutmann's proposal suggests that men and women will show different changes in grandparenting.

In discussions of disengagement theory, gerontologists have posited that family roles, including that of grandparent, become more important as

other roles are relinquished (Kahana & Kahana, 1971). A contrasting perspective is that grandparenting is most significant when grandchildren and grandparents are relatively young (Atchley, 1980; Troll, 1980). Still another view, reflecting models of age-grading, is that the individual's judgement of the suitability of his or her age for having grandchildren has more impact upon reactions to grandparenting than does chronological age (Cohler & Grunebaum, 1981; Crawford, 1981; Smith, 1965).

Although demographic trends and developmental theories outline the importance of examining age-related change in grandparenting, theorists disagree concerning the specific changes that should be expected. There have been at least three empirically-based descriptions of associations between age and grandparenting experience. Neugarten & Weinstein (1964) identified styles of relationships with grandchildren in an urban, middle class sample. Younger grandparents had either distant or fun-seeking relationships, while older grandparents had formal relationships with grandchildren. Robertson (1977; Wood & Robertson, 1976) constructed a typology of grandparents' role conceptions, and considered associations between age and role conceptions. Younger grandparents stressed ways in which social norms shaped their perception of grandparenting, while older grandparents emphasized the personal significance of grandparenting.

In a recent qualitative study, Thomas (1982) examined 19 grandparents' perceptions of changes in relationships with grandchildren. Unfortunately, age of the grandparent was confounded with age of grandchildren and stage of the family life cycle, and the small sample precluded statistical controls permitting examination of associations between grandparents' ages and perceptions of grandparenting. Grandparents said that as grandchildren

reached preschool age recreation replaced caretaking as predominant activities. Grandparents also discussed their responsibilities in providing guidance (disciplining grandchildren, advising parents). The appropriate execution of these responsibilities was a particularly salient issue when grandchildren were young and parents were relatively inexperienced. Grandparents believed that they should help children and grandchildren throughout the family life cycle.

Thus, earlier work shows that age of the grandparent, as well the processes of family development and grandchildren's maturation, are associated with several dimensions of grandparenting experience. Gender differences in grandparenting have also been recognized as a relevant research issue, but have not been extensively studied. Some have suggested that grandfathers' post-retirement relationships with grandchildren are nurturant bonds similar to those of grandmothers (Caven 1962; Smith, 1965). Others claim that the grandmother's role is more diverse than that of the grandfather (Thompson & Streib, 1962). Recently, Nye & Berardo (1981) proposed that women are more likely than men to think about themselves as grandparents before grandchildren's birth. Nye & Berardo also echoed the earlier suggestion that grandfathers' post-retirement involvement with grandchildren does not differ from grandmothers' involvement.

The few empirical examinations of gender differences in grandparenting have been made in research not primarily concerned with gender differences. Albrecht (1954) found that grandmothers took care of grandchildren more than did grandfathers, but also that neither men nor women had or desired extensive caretaking responsibilities for grandchildren. Neugarten & Weinstein (1964) found that only grandmothers were surrogate parents

for grandchildren, and that primarily grandfathers were "reservoirs of family wisdom". More recently, Crawford (1981) found that women viewed grandparenting as a source of biological renewal, while men valued the opportunity to share information or financial resources, or to take pride in grandchildren's accomplishments.

Hagestad & Speicher (1981), in a study of grandparents and young adult grandchildren, found that men and women attempted to influence grandchildren in different ways. Grandfathers felt that their influence should be confined to instrumental matters (i.e., jobs, finances), whereas grandmothers influenced in the realm of interpersonal relationships as well as of instrumental matters. Finally, in Thomas' (1982) qualitative study, grandfathers noted that they spent more time playing with grandchildren as the grandchildren matured. Grandmothers described this change as decreased time spent babysitting as the grandchildren grew. Grandmothers also described situations conducive to grandparents' provision of family guidance in greater detail than did grandfathers.

It is reasonable to suppose that grandchildren's characteristics also influence perceptions of grandparenting. Researchers have considered age differences in children's views of grandparents. Kahana & Kahana (1970) found that 4 and 5 year olds focused upon grandparents' physical characteristics, while 8 and 9 year olds viewed their grandparents in more functional terms, and 11 and 12 year olds' views reflected an abstract interpersonal orientation. More recently, Schultz (1980) found that the complexity of descriptions of grandparents increased with age, and concluded that cognitive level is an important mediator of childhood attachments. Grandchildren of different ages may therefore seek different

qualities in grandparents, and in that way influence the nature of grandparenting experience.

At this time, then, several areas of age and gender differences in perceptions of grandparenting have been identified. However, studies in which these dimensions of variation have been considered often have evaluated either age or gender differences, and, with few exceptions (e.g., Neugarten & Weinstein, 1964), have examined single dimensions of grandparenting experience. Age and gender differences in multiple aspects of grandparenting have rarely been described within a single sample. The goals of this research were to examine age and gender differences in perceived grandparenting responsibilities.

This study was primarily based upon Thomas' (1982) earlier qualitative study. In that study, men and women found satisfaction in grandparenting and believed that they should help children and grandchildren throughout the family life cycle. As noted earlier, there were gender differences in descriptions of caretaking and guidance responsibilities. Furthermore, grandparents discussed changes over time in caretaking and in providing guidance. On that basis, it was expected that there would be neither age nor gender differences in perceived responsibility for helping, but that younger grandparents and grandmothers would express higher levels of caretaking and guidance responsibilities than would older grandparents and grandfathers.

Method

Participants

Two hundred and seventy-seven grandparents (172 grandmothers, 105 grandfathers) who were members of church and civic organizations volunteered

their participation. Grandparents were blocked into three age groups: ages 45-60 (21 grandfathers, 29 grandmothers), ages 61-69 (39 grandfathers, 70 grandmothers), and ages 70-90 (45 grandfathers, 73 grandmothers). These age groupings were chosen in order to roughly represent middle-aged, young-old, and old-old grandparents, while including enough grandfathers in each age group for reasonably powerful tests of age group by gender interaction effects.

Table 1 summarizes grandparents' demographic background. All were Caucasian residents of a midwestern community with a population of approximately 150,000. As the consideration of racial differences was not a study objective, a racially homogeneous sample was sought. The mean age was 68.2. Most grandparents were married (63%), and most were retired (67%). Most were working in or had retired from white collar occupations (66%), and had completed some high school (56%). The modal (33%) annual household income was ten to twenty thousand dollars.

Insert Table 1 about here

Grandparents had an average of three children and an average of six grandchildren. The mean age of the youngest grandchild was 7.1 years, and the mean age of the oldest grandchild was 16.7 years. None of the grandparents shared a household with children or grandchildren. However, most (63%) had at least one grandchild living within 30 minutes travel, and only 13% had grandchildren living no closer than 4 hours travel. Characteristics of grandparents' families are also summarized in Table 1.

Procedures

Perceived characteristics of grandparenting experience were assessed

using mail questionnaires. The author contacted grandparents during church and civic organization meetings. At each meeting, the author explained the research goals and procedures for completing and returning questionnaires. After answering questions, the author distributed questionnaires, informed consent forms, and postage-paid return mail envelopes to grandparents willing to participate. A participant roster was also obtained at this time. One week after each meeting, postcards were sent to each grandparent receiving a questionnaire; the postcards thanked grandparents who had already returned questionnaires and urged those who had not to do so promptly. Of the 330 grandparents receiving questionnaires, 86% (n=277) returned them.

The questionnaire included 51 items in a Likert scale format. Each item was made up of a statement describing grandparenting experience. Statements were drawn from transcripts of semi-structured interviews conducted as part of Thomas' (1982) earlier qualitative study of perceptions of grandparenting. Transcript statements were selected in order to measure five areas of perceptions of grandparenting: (1) perceived responsibility for grandchildren's discipline (16 items; Chronbach's alpha =.84), (2) perceived responsibility for giving childrearing advice (13 items; Chronbach's alpha =.90), (3) perceived responsibility for helping grandchildren (4 items; Chronbach's alpha =.70), and (4) perceived responsibility for grandchildren's care (3 items; Chronbach's alpha =.55).

Grandparents used a five point scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree) to indicate their reaction to each statement. Responses to each statement were assigned a value of 1 to 5, with 5 assigned so as to reflect high levels of each type of perception and 1 assigned so as to reflect low levels of

each type of perception. Numerical values corresponding to statement responses were added to construct scale scores.

Results

Differences in demographic characteristics

Chi-square tests, *t*-tests, and ANOVA's were used to examine age and gender differences in grandparents' demographic characteristics. Scheffé tests were used for comparisons of means. Participants in the three age groups differed in several demographic characteristics (see Table 1). Grandparents in the two oldest groups were more likely than younger grandparents to have annual household incomes of less than $10,000, Chi-square (12) = 45.71, C = .40, p < .00001. Not surprisingly, grandparents in the youngest group were likely to be working full-time, while those in the two older groups were more likely to be retired, Chi-square (6) = 105.43, C = .52, p < .00001.

Although most grandparents in all age groups were married, those in the two older groups were more likely to be widowed than were younger grandparents, Chi-square (4) = 12.76, C = .21, p < .013 (see Table 1). The youngest grandparents had more children of their own, F (2, 273) = 9.98, p < .0001, and had more families of grandchildren, F (2, 271) = 3.96, p < 02, than did grandparents in the two older groups. However, the oldest grandparents had more grandchildren than did those in the youngest group, F (2, 267) = 6.38, p < .002. Finally, mean ages of the oldest grandchild, F (2, 265) = 60.33, p < .00001, and the youngest grandchild, F (2, 265) = 32.70, p < .00001, were significantly higher for the oldest grandparents.

Men and women also differed in demographic characteristics (see Table 1). Grandfathers were more likely to be married than were grandmothers,

Chi-square (2) = 43.76, C = .37, p < .001. Grandmothers were more likely to have completed some high school and less likely to have completed master's degrees than were grandfathers, Chi-square (5) = 16.74, C = .24, p < .005. Grandmothers were also less likely to be working outside the home and more likely to be full-time homemakers than were grandfathers, Chi-square (6) = 26.76, C = .31, p < .0002. Grandmothers were less likely to be employed or have been employed in blue collar or agricultural fields, but were more likely to be employed or have been employed in white collar or service occupations than were grandfathers, Chi-square (4) = 45.45, C = .37, p < .0001. Finally, the mean ages of the oldest grandchild, t (266) = 3.01, p < .003, and of the youngest grandchild, t (266) = 3.40, p < .001, were significantly higher for grandmothers.

Differences in perceptions of grandparenting

An age group by gender MANOVA was used to examine age and gender differences in grandparenting satisfaction and perceived responsibilities. MANOVA was selected as the ideal analytic strategy for testing between-group differences in means on several dependent variables, while controlling the probability of Type I error. The ratio of subjects to dependent variables was appropriate for this choice, and the data set satisfied the assumptions of multivariate normal distribution of the dependent variables and of equality of group dispersions. Mean satisfaction and perceived grandparenting responsibility scale scores appear in Table 2. Scheffé tests were again used for comparisons of group means.

Insert Table 2 about here

Age groups differed significantly in perceptions of grandparenting,

Wilk's Lambda = .87083, $p < .0001$. The two younger groups expressed greater responsibility for grandchildren's discipline, for grandchildren's care, and for offering childrearing advice than did the oldest grandparents, F's (2, 269) > 3.94, p's < .021 (see Table 2). Age groups did not differ significantly in levels of satisfaction with grandparenting or in level of perceived responsibility for helping grandchildren, p's < .852. There were also significant gender differences, Wilk's Lambda = .86155, $p < .0001$. Compared to grandfathers, grandmothers expressed significantly greater satisfaction with grandparenting, and significantly lower levels of responsibility for grandchildren's care and for offering childrearing advice, F's (1, 269) > 8.17, p's < .005 (see Table 2). Men and women did not differ significantly in levels of perceived responsibilities for grandchildren's discipline or for helping grandchildren, p's < .260. The effect of the age group by gender interaction was not significant, $p < .566$.

As mentioned earlier, grandparents of different ages, and grandmothers and grandfathers, differed in mean ages of oldest and youngest grandchildren. Ages of oldest and youngest grandchildren were also significantly associated with perceived responsibility for grandchildren's discipline, r's > -.27, p's < .0001, and perceived responsibility for giving childrearing advice, r's > -.18, p's < .0001. Furthermore, age of the oldest grandchild was associated with perceived responsibility for grandchildren's care, r=-.14, $p < .01$, and age of the youngest grandchild was associated with satisfaction with grandparenting, r=.11, $p < .03$.

Recall, too, that the youngest grandparents had significantly fewer grandchildren than did the oldest grandparents, although men and women did

not differ significantly in number of grandchildren, $p < .94$. Number of grandchildren was significantly associated with perceived responsibility for grandchildren's care, $r = -.11$, $p < .03$, and with perceived responsibility for grandchildren's discipline, $r = -.16$, $p < .005$. Analyses of covariance were conducted to determine the extent to which the previously identified age and gender differences in perceptions of grandparenting reflected group differences in number of grandchildren and in grandchildren's ages. In each ANOCVA, the assumption of homogeneity of regression coefficients was satisfied. Mean perceptions of grandparenting scale scores adjusted for covariates appear in Table 2.

Mean ages of oldest and youngest grandchildren were covariates in an age group by gender ANOCVA of perceived responsibility for giving childrearing advice. The two younger groups expressed significantly greater levels of this perceived responsibility than did the oldest grandparents, F (2, 259) = 3.87, $p < 02$. In addition, grandfathers endorsed significantly higher levels of responsibility for giving childrearing advice than did grandmothers, F (1, 259) 13.96, $p < .0001$. The age group by gender interaction did not reach statistical significance, $p < .545$.

Mean age of the oldest grandchild, mean age of the youngest grandchild, and number of grandchildren were covariates in an age group by gender ANOCVA of scores for perceived responsibility for grandchildren's discipline. Age groups did not differ significantly in levels of perceived responsibility for discipline, and grandmothers' and grandfathers' scores did not differ significantly, p's $< .10$. The age group by gender interaction effect was not significant, $p < .81$.

Mean age of the oldest grandchild and number of grandchildren were

covariates in an age group by gender ANOCVA of perceived responsibility for grandchildren's care. Age groups did not differ significantly, and the age group by gender interaction was not significant, p's < .14. Grandfathers expressed significantly greater responsibility for grandchildren's care when number of grandchildren and oldest grandchild's age were covariates, F (1, 258) = 9.78, p < .002.

Mean age of the youngest grandchild was a covariate in an age group by gender ANOCVA of satisfaction with grandparenting scores. Age groups did not differ significantly, and the age group by gender interaction was not significant, p's < .726. However, grandmothers expressed significantly higher levels of satisfaction with grandparenting when the youngest grandchild's age was a covariate, F (1, 259) = 6.29, p < .013.

DISCUSSION

Earlier theoretical and empirical work suggested that men and women, and individuals of different ages, differ in views of grandparenting. In this study, such differences have been identified. As hypothesized, relatively young grandparents expressed the greatest readiness to offer childrearing advice, regardless of their grandchildren's ages. Contrary to expectations, grandfathers endorsed relatively high levels of responsibility for grandchildren's care and for offering childrearing advice, regardless of number of grandchildren or of grandchildren's ages. Another unexpected finding was that grandmothers expressed relatively high levels of satisfaction with grandparenting, again regardless of grandchildren's ages. The grandparents in this study apparently acted as caregivers and disciplinarians only when young grandchildren's needs for nurturance or guidance demanded these functions.

Differences between these findings and those of Thomas' (1982) study

may reflect either sample or methodological differences. The grandparents in the present study were midwesterners residing in a fairly large community, while those of the Thomas (1982) study were residents of a rural Appalachian area. Regional differences in family values and views of appropriate gender roles may have resulted in differences in the two sets of findings. Alternatively, these differences may be due to the use of qualitative methods in the earlier study and the use of quantitative measures of perceptions of grandparenting in the research reported here. The contrasts between the two sets of findings highlight the importance of continued research on grandparenting, in which diverse samples and methods are employed, in order to identify consistent findings describing grandparenting experience.

The age difference in perceived responsibility for offering childrearing advice may stem from an age difference in recency of active parenting experience. The younger grandparents may have expressed greater readiness to offer advice because their own childrearing concerns were relatively vivid and readily accessible memories. These grandparents may have felt that they had more expertise and insight into parenting than did the oldest grandparents. It is also possible that the younger grandparents' children may have attributed childrearing expertise to their parents more readily than did the children of the oldest grandparents. Perhaps, then, the younger grandparents encountered more frequent requests for childrearing advice. Parents' views of their own parents as grandparents were not assessed in this study, however, and this interpretation thus is speculative. Alternatively, the age difference in perceived responsibility for advising may reflect generational differences in views of appropriate grandparent

behavior.

Grandfathers' stronger endorsement of responsibilities for grandchildren's care and for offering childrearing advice may reflect Gutmann's (1975) proposed shift in forms of mastery. One arena in which a middle aged or elderly man might express new-found capacities for nurturance and expressivity is in taking care of grandchildren and advising about their care. Earlier authors (Caven, 1962; Nye & Berardo, 1981; Smith, 1965) who proposed that grandfathers have nurturant relationships with their grandchildren may have been accurate, and yet failed to emphasize the developmental significance of these bonds for the grandfather.

Such nurturant relationships with grandchildren, even if vehicles for individual growth, do not seem to be relationships that men experience without strain. Grandmothers evidenced higher grandparenting satisfaction scores than did grandfathers. Assuming that these contemporary grandmothers had been their own children's primary caregivers, one can describe them as more familiar than their male counterparts with intimate adult-child family relationships. The grandmothers' higher levels of satisfaction with grandparenting may stem from experiential continuity. For grandfathers, involvement in such relationships might be developmentally adaptive, but might also represent experiential discontinuity that was not necessarily comfortable.

Thus, the findings of this study reveal age and gender differences in perceptions of grandparenting that are statistically independent of differences related to number of grandchildren and grandchildren's ages. Grandfathers of all ages share with relatively young grandmothers readiness to offer childrearing advice. Findings of the present study also show, in

contrast to earlier descriptions of grandparents (Caven, 1962; Smith, 1965), that grandfathers endorse responsibility for grandchildren's care to a greater extent than do grandmothers. It is, of course, possible, that the grandfathers in this study did not actually assume responsibility for grandchildren's care or for giving childrearing advice to a greater extent than did grandmothers, but simply that these grandfathers more often agreed that it would be appropriate for them to do so. Grandmothers' relatively high levels of grandparenting satisfaction, together with relatively weak endorsement of caretaking responsibility, conform to earlier suggestions that grandparents are not anxious to assume parental responsibilities for grandchildren (Albrecht, 1954).

The study findings can be fruitfully extended in several ways. Most obviously, longitudinal or sequential designs should be used, in order to directly examine changes over time in perceptions of grandparenting. Larger, more representative samples of grandparents should be used in order to assess the generality of the findings. The findings of this study describe only the views of Caucasian grandparents aged 45 to 90. Further investigations are needed in order to determine the extent to which these findings apply to grandparents in racial and ethnic minority groups, and to grandparents in early middle age and extreme old age.

The research reported in this article describes age and gender differences in grandparenting satisfaction and in perceived grandparenting responsibilities. An important priority in further research is to clarify the extent to which these perceptions of responsibilities conform to grandparents' actual involvement in grandchildren's upbringing. Additional sampling and/or statistical controls should also be employed in order to examine

individual differences in grandparenting apart from the influence of family characteristics other than number of grandchildren and grandchildren's ages. Finally, grandchildren's and parents' views of grandparents should also be evaluated. With these data, more comprehensive descriptions of grandparenting experience, and of individual differences in that experience, should be possible.

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Table 1

Grandparents' Demographic and Family Characteristics

	Grand-mothers (n=172)	Grand-fathers (n=105)	Ages 45-60 (n=50)	Ages 61-69 (n=109)	Ages 70-90 (n=118)
Mean Age	68.4	67.9	56.1	65.7	75.6
	(7.7)	(8.6)	(3.5)	(2.4)	(4.3)
Marital Status					
Married	49%	88%	80%	65%	55%
Separated or Divorced	9	4	6	8	6
Widowed	43	9	14	27	40
Highest Level of Education					
Grade School	9%	12%	4%	7%	16%
Some High School	21	8	18	13	17
High School Degree	29	30	42	34	21
Some College	12	16	12	13	15
College Degree	22	16	16	18	24
Master's Degree	6	17	8	15	8
Retirement Status					
Working Full Time	4%	19%	42%	6%	0%
Full Time Homemaker	24	0	28	15	10
Working Part Time	8	10	16	7	7
Retired	64	71	14	72	83

Occupational/Former Occupation					
White Collar	79%	65%	71%	74%	74%
Blue Collar	10	30	16	18	21
Service	10	1	10	7	4
Agricultural	1	4	2	1	2
Annual Household Income					
Less than $10,000	35%	10%	6%	22%	34%
$10,001 - $20,000	43	37	34	34	45
$20,001 - $30,000	13	31	28	26	19
Over $30,001	9	23	32	17	2
Mean Number of Grandchildren	5.7	5.6	3.7	5.7	6.4
	(4.6)	(4.4)	(3.7)	(4.8)	(4.3)
Mean Age of Oldest Grandchild	17.9	14.6	8.3	15.4	21.6
	(8.6)	(8.6)	(4.7)	(7.5)	(7.9)
Mean Age of Youngest Grandchild	8.0	5.5	3.7	5.4	10.2
	(6.4)	(5.1)	(3.0)	(4.8)	(6.7)
Proximity to Geographically Closest Grandchild					
Less than 30 Minutes Travel	63%	64%	68%	61%	63%
31 to 60 Minutes Travel	7	7	8	8	5
1 to 2 Hours Travel	12	11	8	10	14
2 to 4 Hours Travel	4	6	2	7	4
More than 4 Hours Travel	15	12	14	13	14

Note: Standard deviations corresponding to mean values are in parentheses.

Table 2

Perceptions of Grandparenting Mean Scale Scores

Group	N	Scale Name: Perceived Responsibility For: Discipline[b;g]	Care[c;f;g]	Helping[d]	Advice[e;f;g]
		Not Adjusted for Covariate(s)			
Ages 45 - 60					
Grandmothers	29	54.46(8.04)	6.29(1.65)	15.96(2.28)	36.43(8.06)
Grandfathers	21	54.09(9.49)	7.86(3.02)	16.38(1.94)	42.33(6.87)
Ages 61 - 69					
Grandmothers	70	51.37(8.17)	6.11(1.91)	16.29(1.80)	35.31(8.68)
Grandfathers	39	54.21(8.50)	7.08(2.33)	15.97(2.41)	39.79(9.23)
Ages 70 - 90					
Grandmothers	73	47.22(9.14)	6.05(1.81)	16.21(2.39)	32.34(8.38)
Grandfathers	45	48.62(7.83)	6.19(1.84)	15.98(2.05)	35.81(7.30)

Table 2 Continued

Group	N	Scale Name: Perceived Responsibility For: Discipline[b]	Care[c;f]	Helping	Advice[e;f;g]
		Adjusted for Covariate(s)			
Ages 45 - 60					
Grandmothers	29	52.57	6.26		35.50
Grandfathers	21	51.73	7.82		41.70
Ages 61 - 69					
Grandmothers	70	52.02	6.17		35.73
Grandfathers	39	53.11	7.11		39.76
Ages 70 - 90					
Grandmothers	73	49.56	5.97		32.98
Grandfathers	45	50.03	6.35		36.05

Note: Standard deviations corresponding to mean values appear in parentheses.

[b]Maximum possible score = 80; score range 19 - 71

[c]Maximum possible score = 15; score range 2 - 14

[d]Maximum possible score = 20; score range 8 - 20

[e]Maximum possible score = 65; score range 13 - 61

[f]Grandmothers' and grandfathers' means differ significantly, $p \leq .05$.

[g]Two younger age group means differ significantly from oldest age group mean, $p \leq .05$.